DO INCREMENTAL INCREASES OF THE HERBICIDE GLYPHOSATE HAVE INDIRECT CONSEQUENCES FOR SPIDER COMMUNITIES?

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ABSTRACT. We examined the indirect effect of the herbicide glyphosate on field margin spider communities. Glyphosate was applied to two replicated (n = 8 per treatment) randomized field experiments over two years in 1997-1998. Spiders were sampled using a modified garden vac monthly from May-October in the following treatments: 1997 comprised 90g, 180g, & 360g active ingredient (a.i.) glyphosate ha⁻¹ treatments and an unsprayed control; 1998 comprised 360g, 720g and 1440g a.i. glyphosate ha⁻¹ treatments and an unsprayed control. We examined the indirect effect of glyphosate on the spider community using DECORANA (DCA), an indirect form of gradient analysis. We subjected DCA-derived Euclidean distances (one a measure of beta diversity and the other a measure of variability), to the scrutiny of a repeated measures ANOVA design. We found that species turnover and cluster variation did not differ significantly between treatments. We attribute the lack of any effect to a large number of common agricultural species which are never eliminated from a habitat, but are instead significantly reduced. Reduction rather than elimination does not cause the spider communities within these plots to turn over any faster than the control. However, like most other animal communities, the spider community did turn over and change in structure and composition through the season, regardless of treatment. Using Spearman rank correlations, we found that this within-season species turnover is related to the decline in vegetation height and the increase in percentage dead vegetation cover in the field margin.

Keywords: Glyphosate, herbicide, spiders, species turnover, DECORANA, field margins

Field margins play an important agricultural role in providing a refuge for beneficial invertebrate predators (e.g., Araneae, some Carabidae; Staphylinidae; Heteroptera) facilitating movements of invertebrates into the crop (e.g., Duelli et al. 1990). Data from herbicidetreated and untreated cereal headlands suggest that butterflies, carabid beetles, Auchenorrhycha and Heteroptera (Hemiptera) are detrimentally affected by spray applications, but to differing degrees (e.g., Chiverton & Sotherton

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² Current address: Central Science Laboratory, Sand Hutton, York, YO41 1LZ, UK. 1991; Feber et al. 1996; Haughton et al. 1999a,b). This detrimental effect on non-target invertebrates following an experimental spray application of herbicide simulates what may happen when spray is allowed to drift onto non-target areas. Drift may be a product of operator error or a sudden increase in wind speed and in either of these situations, the spray is likely to become misplaced and affect field margins and adjacent semi-natural habitats.

Recent evidence suggests that spider numbers are likely to be significantly affected even by a relatively low rate of herbicide application (Baines et al. 1998; Haughton et al. 1999c). This effect, even at low rates, may

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have detrimental implications for both field margin biodiversity and bio-control programs which use beneficial spiders to control pests. In the context of a rapid increase in worldwide demand for glyphosate when, for example, 70 million hectares of land worldwide were sprayed in 1997 (Woodburn 2000), it is easy to demonstrate a need for a clearer understanding of the potential effect on spiders and other non-target invertebrates.

The properties of glyphosate (N-(phosphonomethyl)glycine), an exceedingly effective but slow-acting broad spectrum herbicide, are well known. The herbicide acts by inhibiting the biochemical pathway in plants (i.e., 5-enolpyruvylshikimate 3-phosphate synthase) by blocking the production of aromatic amino acids thus restricting protein synthesis and photosynthetic activity (Bayliss 2000). It is used in a range of agricultural (particularly cereals), industrial and domestic situations to control grasses and other weeds (Woodburn 2000). However, the toxicological effect on invertebrates is little understood except to state that the herbicide is classified as 'harmless' to spiders and a range of other common non-target invertebrates by The Society of Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry (Europe) (Barrett et al. 1994)

In this paper we investigated the withinseason effect of incremental levels of glyphosate application (six levels from 90–1440 g active ingredient (a.i) glyphosate ha⁻¹ with a control) on field margin spiders from a community perspective.

METHODS

Study sites.—The field research was based at the Allerton Research and Educational Trust Estate, Loddington, Leicestershire, UK (grid reference: SK 789015). We spread the effort of conducting such a large experiment over two years between 1997–1998. Two field margin study sites were used which were separated by a minor road but were no more than 20 m apart. Both sites had an adjacent dense uncut Hawthorn (*Crataegus monogyna* Jacq.) and Blackthorn (*Prunus spinosa* L.) hedge running along their length. The experimental plot size was the same in both years: field margins were divided into 32 contiguous plots, each measuring 12 m long \times 2 m wide.

The 1997 margin was dominated by False Oat-grass (Arrhenatherum elatius (L.)) and

Couch-grass (*Elymus repens* (L.)). Eight replicates of four treatments, 90 g, 180 g and 360 g a.i. glyphosate ha⁻¹ (Roundup Biactive, Monsanto, High Wycombe, Berkshire) and an unsprayed control, were randomly assigned along the field margin. Glyphosate was applied to these plots at a volume rate of 200 litres ha⁻¹ and a pressure of 2.5 bar using an Oxford Precision Sprayer fitted with flat fan nozzles on 30.v.1997, during dry and calm conditions (24 °C, RH 55%, wind speed <1 m s⁻¹).

The 1998 margin was dominated by False Oat-grass (*A. elatius* (L.)) and Yorkshire Fog (*Holcus lanatus* (L.)). Eight replicates of four treatments were assigned in a randomized block design: 360 g, 720 g and 1440 g a.i. glyphosate ha⁻¹ (Roundup Biactive, Monsanto, High Wycombe, Berkshire) suspended in water and an unsprayed control. Glyphosate was applied to the plots on the 4.vi.1998 during dry, calm conditions (17.5 °C, RH 84.5%, wind speed <2 m s⁻¹) with the same equipment, volume rate and pressure as that described in 1997.

Data collection.—Spiders were sampled using a modified garden-vac (g-vac) (Ryobi RSV3100E: engine capacity 31 cm³ with a nozzle size 13 cm). The spider samples from each experimental plot comprised 10 sub-samples of 30 second sucks at 1 m intervals along each experimental plot. Sampling was done on the central 10 m of each plot to avoid edge effects from neighboring treatments: the total sampling area per plot approximated to 0.13 m². Each sample of spiders was emptied from the g-vac into a plastic bag, extracted with an aspirator into 70% alcohol and then identified to species level.

Two measures of vegetation structure were taken. Percentage ground cover of dead vegetation in the experimental plots was recorded using permanent 0.25 m² quadrats and, average vegetation height at five positions (as in a domino-5) within the quadrats was recorded to the nearest cm. Three quadrats were positioned at 3 m, 6 m and 9 m within each of the 32 plots and mean percentage dead vegetation cover and mean vegetation height. Spider and vegetation sampling was done monthly between May–October inclusive, to monitor any changes over the season.

Data analyses.—There are many ways of calculating species turnover, but most index-

type methods which have traditionally been used do not take account of the community dynamics as they fail to retain all the information from the species matrix. However, multivariate statistics have been suggested as an inclusive technique which does not oversimplify the dynamic nature of the community (Williamson 1987). We introduce a simple method of calculating species turnover while retaining most of the ecological information from the data matrix. Using DECORANA (DEtrended CORrespondence ANAlysis or DCA for short), a widely available package designed specifically for ecological studies to avoid distortions caused by either the arch or horseshoe effects (Hill 1994), P values are attached to the turnover rates in DCA-Euclidean space using ANOVAs. This is an extension of Hill's (1994) approximation of the standard deviation of species turnover along the x-axis. Species turnover, which is sometimes referred to as beta (β) diversity, is used here as meaning "the change in the composition of a biological community as a result of either or both the immigration and local extinction of species" (Russell et al. 1995).

First, two binary matrices were created $(1997: 58 \times 192; 1998: 59 \times 192)$ which represented the presence/absence of species within each year. These were analyzed separately using DCA (default settings with 26 segments used to remove the arch effect), which arranges points along the axes on the basis of species composition data. Thus, the further two points are from one another in the DCA ordinational space, the more dissimilar the spider communities. Once the DCA had produced two biplots (1997 & 1998), the axes 1 and 2 scores were separated into herbicide treatment (i.e., control, 90 g, 180 g etc.). Using the DCA axis 1 and 2 scores, the Euclidean distance for each replicate within each treatment was calculated for consecutive between-month shifts to establish the rate of species turnover. For example, in 1997 for the first replicate in the 90 g a.i. glyphosate ha⁻¹ treatment, the following Euclidean distances were calculated from axis 1 and 2 scores: May \rightarrow June; June \rightarrow July; July-August; August-September; September→October. Thus, there were five measurements for each of the eight replicates in each of the four treatments (n = 160) for both years. These distances indicate the seasonal species turnover in n dimensional space. Ultimately, these Euclidean distances indicate the level of species stability (i.e., high or low rates of turnover) between treatments.

We then calculated the average Euclidean distance between all points within the same treatment for each of the months from May–October inclusive (n = 672) using the DCA axis 1 and 2 scores for each year (i.e., we generated a distance matrix for each treatment for each month). This approach would indicate whether the size of the cluster varied between treatment. The size of the cluster varied between treatment. The size of the cluster equates to a measure of community variation; large clusters have more variation in the species complex than small ones.

Univariate repeated measures, with date as the within-subject factor and treatment as the main effect, were used to analyze differences in species turnover (i.e., distance moved in DCA-Euclidean space) and cluster distance throughout the season in each year. As a prerequisite to using a repeated measures ANO-VA, we logged (x + 1) the data and tested it for sphericity using Mauchly's W test. Where significant differences were found between treatments, a Tukey post hoc test was used to establish the location of the difference. We also used Monte Carlo randomization tests to establish whether the null hypothesis, that a pattern is present as purely a chance effect of observations in a random order, should be rejected (Manley 1991). Monte Carlo randomizations are useful for verifiying the significance level in an ANOVA design when some of the statistical assumptions (i.e., independence) may be in question. The level of significance in a Monte Carlo test is expressed as the percentage of values which are equal to, or higher than can be found in a randomized distribution. If the percentage of values that exceed the observed mean square is less than 5%, then this suggests that the null hypothesis should be rejected. We used 30,000 Monte Carlo randomizations to test this null hypothesis on significant ANOVA test results to check for their validity.

In order to interpret the importance to the arthropod community of the changes in the vegetation caused by the rate of glyphosate, Spearman's rank correlation was used to test for the strength of association between the axis scores and vegetation height and percentage dead vegetation cover. Table 1.—Araneae species recorded from the field margins at Loddington.

Oonopidae

Oonops domesticus de Dalmas 1916

Gnaphosidae

Micaria pulicaria (Sundevall 1832)

Clubionidae

Clubiona reclusa Cambridge 1863 Clubiona lutescens Westring 1851 Clubiona compta Koch 1839

Zoridae

Zora spinimana (Sundevall 1833)

Thomisidae

Xysticus cristatus (Clerck 1757) *Ozyptila praticola* (Koch 1837)

Philodromidae

Philodromus dispar Walckenaer 1826 Philodromus cespitum Walckenaer 1802 Philodromus collinus Koch 1835 Tibellus oblongus Walckenaer 1802

Salticidae

Euophrys frontalis (Walckenaer 1802)

Lycosidae

Pardosa palustris (L. 1758) Pardosa pullata (Clerck 1757) Pardosa prativaga (Koch 1870) Pardosa amentata (Clerck 1757) Pardosa nigriceps (Thorell 1856) Alopecosa pulverulenta (Clerck 1757) Trochosa ruricola (Degeer 1778) Trochosa terricola Thorell 1856

Pisauridae

Pisaura mirabilis (Clerck 1757)

Mimetidae

Ero cambridgei Kulczynski 1911 Ero furcata (Villers 1789)

Theridiidae

Episinus angulatus (Blackwall 1836) *Theridion bimaculatum* (L. 1767) *Enoplognatha ovata* (Clerck 1757) *Robertus lividus* (Blackwall 1836) *Pholcomma gibbum* (Westring 1851)

Tetragnathidae

Tetragnatha extensa (L. 1758) Tetragnatha montana Simon 1874 Pachygnatha clercki Sundevall 1823 Pachygnatha degeeri Sundevall 1830 Meta segmentata (Clerck 1757) Meta mengei (Blackwall 1869)

Araneidae

Lariniodes cornutus (Clerck 1757) Araniella opistographa (Kulczynski 19505)

Linyphiidae

Ceratinella brevipes (Westring 1851) Ceratiuella scabrosa (Cambridge 1871) Walckenaeria acuminata Blackwall 1833 Walckenaeria uudipalpis (Westring 1851) Walckenaeria unicornis Cambridge 1861 Walckenaeria cuspidata (Blackwall 1833) Dicymbium nigrum (Blackwall 1834) Entelecara erythropus (Westring 1851) Dismodicus bifrons (Blackwall 1841) Gonatium rubens (Blackwall 1833) Maso sundevalli (Westring 1851) Pocadicnemis juncea Locket & Millidge 1953 Oedothorax fuscus (Blackwall 1834) Oedothorax retusus (Westring 1851) Cuephalocotes obscurus (Blackwall 1834) Monocephalus fuscipes (Blackwall 1836) Gongylidiellum vivum (Cambridge 1875) Micrargus herbigradus (Blackwall 1854) Micrargus subaequalis (Westring 1851) Erigonella hiemalis (Blackwall 1841) Savignya frontata (Blackwall 1833) Diplocephalus latiforus (Cambridge 1863) Diplocephalus connatus Bertkau 1889 Araeoncus humilis (Blackwall 1841) Panamomops sulciforns (Wider 1834) Erigone dentipalpis (Wider 1834) Erigone atra (Blackwall 1833) Porrhomma microphthalmum (Cambridge 1871) Meioneta rurestris (Koch 1836) Meioneta saxatilis (Blackwall 1844) Syedra gracilis (Menge 1869) Centromerus sylvaticus (Blackwall 1841) Centromerita bicolor (Blackwall 1833) Bathyphantes gracilis (Blackwall 1841) Bathyphantes parvulus (Westring 1851) Diplostyla concolor (Wider 1834) Poeciloneta globosa (Wider 1841) Stemonyphantes lineatus (L. 1758) Lephthyphantes tenuis (Blackwall 1852) Lepthyphantes mengei Kulczynski 1887 Lepthyphantes ericaeus (Blackwall 1853) Lepthyphautes pallidus (Cambridge 1871) Lepthyphantes insignis Cambridge 1913 Nerieue clathrata (Sundevall 1830) Microlinyphia pusilla (Sundevall 1830)

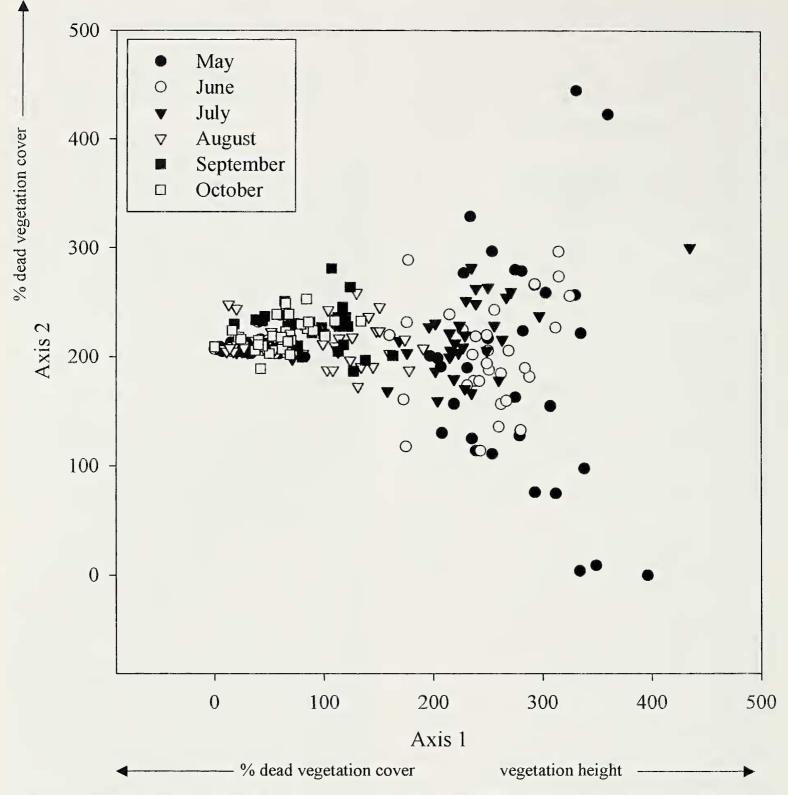


Figure 1.—DCA biplot of 1997 field margin spider samples. (Note: plots indicating symbols as treatments rather than months are not shown because no clear separation can be made between different herbicide rates).

RESULTS

The spider community.—In both 1997 and 1998, the adult spider community was dominated by linyphiids (Table 1). The three species that occured most frequently (percentage of all the samples in 1997 and 1998 respectively) were *Lepthyphantes ericaeus* (Blackwall 1853) (77.1%; 73.9%), *Lepthyphantes tenuis* (Blackwall 1852) (69.3%; 84.3%) and *Bathyphantes gracilis* (Blackwall 1841) (49.5%; 43.2%), all of which are considered common field margin spiders in Britain. Between 58 and 59 species were recorded in total in 1997 and 1998 respectively, 44 of which were recorded in less than 10% of the total number of samples for both years, 28 of which were singletons. The total number of spiders recorded in the study was 46,393. Voucher specimens were deposited with Leceister Museum through John Crocker, the county recorder for Leicestershire.

DCA biplots.—No separation along axis 1 or 2 is apparent on either of the 1997 or 1998 biplots (Figs. 1, 2). Instead, all samples form

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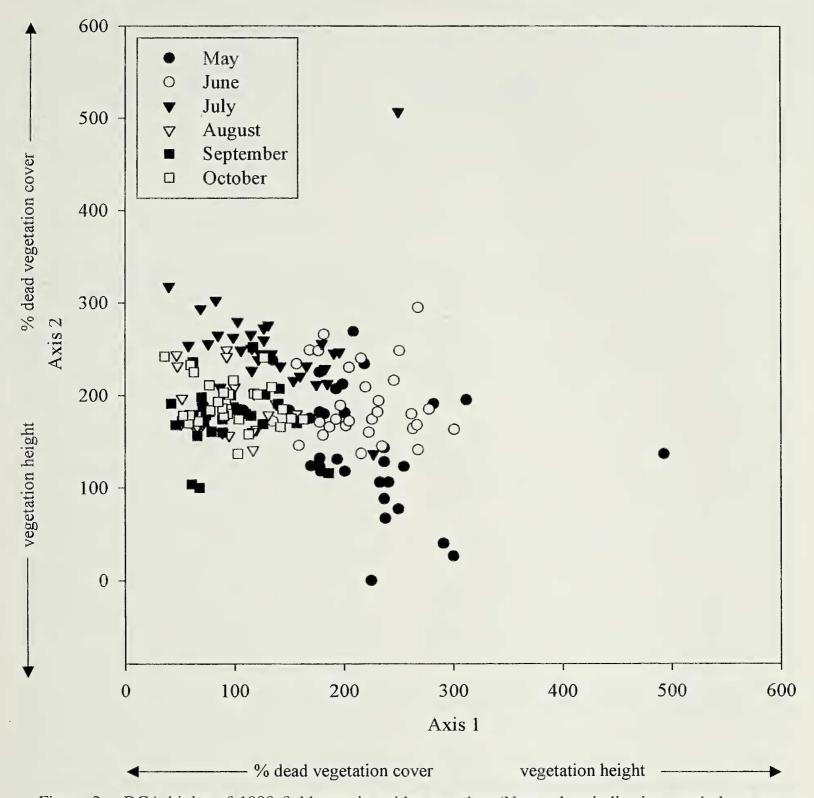


Figure 2.—DCA biplot of 1998 field margin spider samples. (Note: plots indicating symbols as treatments rather than months are not shown because no clear separation can be made between different herbicide rates).

a homogenous cluster, with a tendency for samples within the same month to be aligned. In the 1997 biplot (Fig. 1), axis 1 scores decline as samples move in ordinational space through the season. This effect is less discernable in the 1998 biplot (Fig. 2), although samples within each month do aggregate to some extent. The relationship between axis 1 scores and vegetation height and percentage dead vegetation cover indicates significant correlations (Table 2); axis 1 is positively correlated with percentage dead vegetation cover in both years. These relationships are reversed on axis 2 where, apart from a lack of a significant result in 1997 with vegetation height, axis 2 is negatively correlated with vegetation height, but positively correlated with percentage dead vegetation cover in both years.

DCA-Euclidean species turnover.—Species turnover analysis revealed a significant treatment effect in 1997 ($F_{3,28}$ 3.63 P = 0.024) but no such effect in 1998 ($F_{3,28}$ 0.24 P = 0.867). Significant test results were compared with 30,000 Monte Carlo randomizations and their respective observed mean squares. For the 1997 ANOVA result (i.e., $F_{3,28}$ 3.63 P = 0.024), only 0.060% of the randomizations ex-

Year	- Axis	Vegetation height		Percentage dead vegetation cover	
		r _s	Р	r _s	Р
1997	1	0.434	< 0.001	-0.452	< 0.001
	2	-0.753	0.299	0.185	0.010
1998	1	0.477	< 0.001	-0.314	< 0.001
	2	-0.183	0.011	0.218	0.002

Table 2.—Spearman rank correlations between vegetation characteristics and DCA axis scores for field margin spiders.

ceeded the observed mean square—strong evidence that observed test results could not be generated randomly.

The differences between treatments in 1997 were due to significantly higher rates of turnover in the 90 g a.i. glyphosate treatments when compared all others (Table 3). Overall, the general trend was for species turnover to decline slightly over the season in 1997 (Fig. 3). The trend in 1998 was much more variable with treatments apparently acting independently of one another (Fig. 4).

DCA-Euclidean cluster size.—Cluster size did not differ significantly over the season between treatment for 1997 ($F_{3,108}$ 1.17 P = 0.327) or 1998 ($F_{3,108}$ 1.45 P = 0.233). The general trend was that cluster size did get smaller over the season in 1997 (Fig. 5) but in 1998, it was more variable with size declining towards the middle of the summer and increasing approaching the end (Fig. 6).

DISCUSSION

DCA biplots and related tests.—Considering all the repeated measures ANOVAs, no consistent monotonic relationship between glyphosate application rate and species turnover or cluster size could be found. The only significant result that was detected in the 90 g a.i. glyphosate ha⁻¹ treatment, but this does not compare with the effects measured at higher treatments and thus must be considered a rogue effect. Spider communities did change in many ways over the season (Figs. 1–6), but

this was not related to an incremental increase in the rate of glyphosate application. One major factor which influenced the spider community composition over the season was the profound effect of differences in spider phenology. There is often a marked difference between the composition of the spider community in the spring compared to autumn. July and August are the transition months when spring species disappear (e.g., Pardosa species) and autumn species emerge (e.g., Gonatium rubens (Blackwall 1833)). However, most of the abundant spiders occurred throughout the whole sampling period; either low in number in spring and more abundant in autumn (e.g., Bathyphantes gracilis (Blackwall 1841)) or the reverse (e.g., Pocadicnemis juncea Locket & Millidge 1953).

Overall, the response of the spider community was, on first inspection, very different from that of various single species responses observed in other Loddington research. At relatively low rates of glyphosate application (360 g a.i. ha⁻¹), a significant decline in numbers of *L. tenuis* was detected (Haughton et al. 2001a; Haughton et al. 1999c). Similarly, another linyphiid, *G. rubens* was reduced by even lower rates of glyphosate application (180 g a.i. ha⁻¹) and evidence from the same experiment suggests that total spider abundance, and the number of web-spinners are also detrimentally affected (Haughton et al. 1999c).

Table 3.—Tukey *P* values for differences between mean DCA-Euclidean distances for field margin spiders in the 90 g a.i. glyphosate ha^{-1} treatment when compared with all other individual treatments.

	Control	90 g a.i. glyphosate ha ⁻¹	180 g a.i. glyphosate ha ⁻¹	360 g a.i. glyphosate ha ⁻¹
Mean	73.32	141.10	92.80	93.62
Р	0.002	_	0.037	0.040

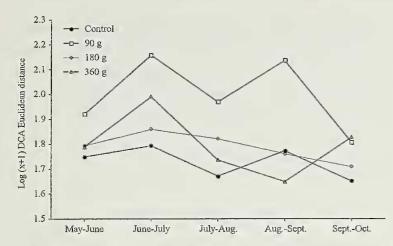


Figure 3.—The mean (n = 160) seasonal spider species turnover between glyphosate treatments in 1997 showing moderate variability within the season and the lack of a single trend. (Note: this graph should not be used to located differences between treatments, please refer to statistics in Table 2).

The question arises then, why are the measures of species turnover and cluster size not showing a similar trend? The answer lies with the way in which spiders respond, even to the highest rate of glyphosate application. As detailed earlier from previous experiments at Loddington, although spiders were shown to be significantly reduced, they were never completely eliminated (see Haughton et al. 1999c; Haughton et al. 2001a). This constant species presence was apparent in the lack of any significant differences in either the species turnover or cluster size results, suggesting that there was little variation in the composition of the spider community, whatever the herbicide treatment. This lack of variation may indicate that an active aerial spider community is "blanketing out" any treatment ef-

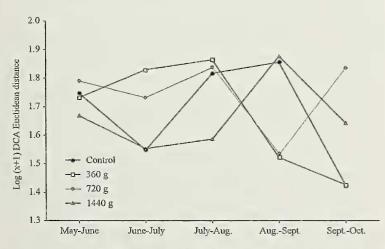


Figure 4.—The mean (n = 160) seasonal spider species turnover between glyphosate treatments in 1998 showing the large variability within the season and the lack of a single trend. (Note: this graph should not be used to located differences between treatments, please refer to statistics in the text).

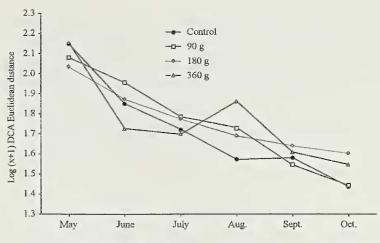


Figure 5.—The mean (n = 672) seasonal decline in spider community DCA-Euclidean cluster size between glyphosate treatments in 1997 showing the trend of variable decline in cluster size through the season. (Note: this graph should not be used to located differences between treatments, please refer to statistics in the text).

fects. The great majority of spiders from the Loddington species list (78%) have a propensity to balloon, either in their immature phase (e.g., *Pardosa* species) or throughout their lives (i.e., most Linyphiidae and some Theridiidae and Tetragnathidae) (e.g., Duffey, 1956; Meijer, 1977). The ability to balloon will undoubtedly have affected the rate at which the different spider communities turn over, causing the differences between treatments to be blurred by a constant aerial fallout or emmigration.

Exposure to herbicides reduces weed cover and diversity (e.g., de Snoo & van der Poll 1999), which in turn reduces the habitat qual-

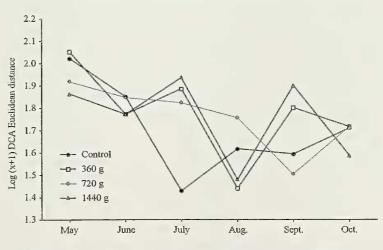


Figure 6.—The mean (n = 672) seasonal decline in spider community DCA-Euclidean cluster size between glyphosate treatments in 1998 showing the trend of variable decline in cluster size through the season until August–October when clusters become larger. (Note: this graph should not be used to located differences between treatments, please refer to statistics in the text).

ity for the spiders, and consequently their numbers decline. Recently, using the spider L. tenuis, we demonstrated that at relatively low rates of glyphosate application in the field (360 g a.i. ha⁻¹), a significant decline in numbers of L. tenuis was detected (Haughton et al. 2001a). The herbicide was not shown to act as an insecticide in direct toxicity tests, even at very high rates of glyphosate application (2160 g a.i. ha⁻¹), but indirectly through habitat degradation: poisson regression showed that numbers of L. tenuis were related (non-linear) to vegetation height and percentage dead vegetation cover (Haughton et al. 2001a,b). The same two variables, vegetation height and percentage dead vegetation cover, were also found to be significantly related to the spider community along axes 1 and 2 in this experiment (Table 2). It is undeniable that vegetation structure has a profound effect on spiders (Uetz 1991). Various studies have demonstrated a relationship between spiders and vegetation height (e.g., Döbel et al., 1990; Rushton & Eyre 1992) and selection of dead vegetation by spiders has also been noted (e.g., Duffey 1962; Gibson et al. 1992). However, vegetation height and percentage dead vegetation cover were only correlated with the change in the spider community over the season, not with the difference between treatments as there were no cluster divisions by treatment in either of the DCA ordinations.

Implications of incremental increases of glyphosate.—Based on our previous research, incremental increases of glyphosate have caused a significant reduction in numbers at the species level, between guilds and for total numbers. From this perspective, the spider community is detrimentally affected by applications of this herbicide. However, in terms of effect on the composition of the spider community, the answer is less clear; species were not eliminated from herbicide treated margins and thus there would seem less cause for concern. However, perpetual use of glyphosate at high rates during the growing season may contribute to a sustained reduction in species, particularly for those species which are not rstategists.

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